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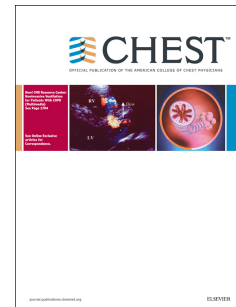
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Accepted Manuscript

Expert statements on the standard of care in critically ill adult patients with atypical haemolytic uraemic syndrome

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Expert statements on the standard of care in critically ill adult patients with atypical haemolytic uraemic syndrome

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List of abbreviations:

aHUS: atypical haemolytic uraemic syndrome

ICU: Intensive Care Unit

TTP: thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura

TMA: thrombotic microangiopathy

DIC: disseminated intravascular coagulation

STEC: Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli*

Competing interests

This review article is an independent piece of work from the signing authors. This group of experts met at an advisory board to discuss thrombotic microangiopathies in critically ill patients. Together, they defined the content of this article, the scope of the systematic review, the elements needed to make this review didactical and thoughtful for the readers, as well as to select the content of each tables and figures. Senior authors have drafted the review and all authors have added their contribution and suggested changes. A medical writer has edited the sentences where needed and improved the language. Before submission, the paper circulated several times within authors and each single suggestion has been taken into account. Alexion has paid the travels and the hotel (for one night) to make the meeting happen. Alexion also paid the medical writer. The generation of this work was an offshoot from the medical attendees and not in any way directed by Alexion. Authors do not believe that industry could possibly benefit from the content of this review.

In addition:

Elie Azoulay is part of the board of Gilead France, and has received fees for lectures from Alexion and Astellas. His institution has received grants from Fisher & Payckle, Pfizer and Cubist.

Gennadii Galstian have received lecture honoraria from Alexion PHARMA INTERNATIONAL Sàrl and Alexion Pharma LLC, Russia

Paul Knoebl has served as an advisory board member, speaker and consultant for Alexion, Ablynx and Baxalta (now Shire).

Dominique Benoit has received speaker's honoraria from Pfizer and MSD.

Marie Scully has received advisory board and speaker's honoraria for Alexion, Ablynx, Baxalta and Novartis.

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Abstract

Background: Atypical haemolytic uraemic syndrome (aHUS) presents similarly to thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura (TTP), and other causes or conditions with thrombotic microangiopathy (TMA) such as DIC or sepsis. Similarity in clinical presentation may hinder diagnosis and optimal treatment selection in the urgent setting in the ICU. However, there is currently no consensus on the diagnosis or treatment of aHUS for ICU specialists. This review aims to summarise available data on the diagnosis and treatment strategies of aHUS in the ICU in order to enhance the understanding of aHUS diagnosis and outcomes in patients managed in the ICU.

Methods: A review of the recent literature (January 2009 – March 2016) was performed to select the most relevant articles for ICU physicians.

Results: Based on the paucity of adult aHUS cases overall and within the ICU, no specific recommendations could be formally graded for the critical care setting. However, the expert panel recognises a core set of skills required by intensivists for diagnosing and managing patients with aHUS: recognising thrombotic microangiopathies, differentiating aHUS from related conditions, recognising involvement of other organ systems, understanding the pathophysiology of aHUS, knowing the diagnostic workup and relevant outcomes in critically ill aHUS patients, and knowing the standard of care for patients with aHUS based on available data and guidelines.

Conclusions: Managing critically ill patients with aHUS requires basic skills that, in the absence of sufficient data from patients treated within the ICU, can be gleaned from an increasingly relevant literature outside the ICU. More data on critically ill patients with aHUS are needed to validate these conclusions within the ICU setting.

INTRODUCTION

Thrombotic microangiopathies (TMAs) are a group of disorders characterised by thrombocytopenia, microangiopathic haemolytic anaemia and organ dysfunction in which ischaemic organ injury can occur to the brain, kidneys, heart, pancreas, liver, lungs, eyes and skin. Conditions with TMAs include the haemolytic uraemic syndromes (HUSs) and thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura (TTP), as well as a number of differential diagnoses that must also be excluded (Figure 1). These conditions have a similar clinical presentation of consumptive thrombocytopenia, mechanical haemolysis and organ failure, although with distinct causes, and are typically associated with thickening and inflammation of arterioles and capillaries, detachment and swelling of endothelial cells, subendothelial widening, accumulation of proteins and cellular debris, or platelet thrombi that obstruct the vascular lumen.^{1,2}

Herein, we will focus on one of these conditions, atypical haemolytic uraemic syndrome (aHUS). aHUS is a rare but life-threatening condition that affects both children and adults. It accounts for approximately 10% of cases of HUS in children but the majority of HUS cases in adults.³ The annual incidence of aHUS is thought to be around 1–2 per million in adults,⁴ although epidemiological data are limited.⁵ aHUS is distinct from typical, or diarrhoea associated-HUS, now commonly called STEC-HUS, which is typically caused by shiga-toxin due to bacterial infection and often associated with bloody diarrhoea. In most cases, aHUS is caused by the uncontrolled activation of the complement system, which leads to platelet, leucocyte and endothelial cell activation and TMA,^{1,6-8} ultimately causing thrombosis and organ dysfunction.^{8,9} Accordingly, it may be unmasked by conditions with enhanced complement activation, such as systemic lupus erythematosus, pregnancy, malignant hypertension, and hematopoietic stem cell transplantation.

Genetic abnormalities have been found in approximately 50–70% of patients with aHUS,^{4,10} and a wide variety of mutations are associated with the condition.^{4,8} Although gene mutations increase the risk of aHUS, they may not be sufficient to cause overt symptoms without additional environmental triggers. These include infections, pregnancy, certain medications, malignancy, sepsis, bone marrow transplantation and connective tissue disorders.^{2,9,11} Consequently, genetic testing is currently not useful for the acute diagnosis of aHUS, e.g. in the intensive care unit (ICU) setting, but it can provide diagnostic confirmation, prognostic value and information on long-term treatment. Furthermore, owing to the severe nature of the condition, the time delay in obtaining genetic results is not consistent with the need for rapid initiation of therapy. In the absence of any fast, specific diagnostic tests for aHUS, the condition can only be diagnosed after exclusion of TTP¹² and related TMAs.

Previously, aHUS and TTP have been managed in the same way, as the conditions are difficult to differentiate and only one treatment option, plasma therapy (plasma infusion or plasma exchange), was available.^{1,4} The benefits of plasma exchange, although not evaluated in prospective studies, include the removal of pathological substances from the blood and the replacement of deficient plasma components.¹³ However, although plasma therapy has improved outcomes considerably in TTP, reducing the mortality rate from 90% to 10–20%,¹⁴ more than 50% of patients with aHUS proceed to end stage renal disease or death despite plasma therapy.^{8,12} Consequently, specific, urgent and interdisciplinary management is paramount in the treatment of patients with aHUS owing to both the severity of the illness and the potential development of irreversible complications of organ involvement.¹ Eculizumab, approved in 2011, is the first treatment for aHUS with proven efficacy and safety in prospective clinical trials.⁶ This monoclonal antibody targets the complement system by blocking the cleavage of C5, avoiding the production of cleavage products C5a

and C5b;¹⁵ evidence suggests that early initiation can improve renal and non-renal recovery.^{16,17}

In many cases, the ICU is the only clinical environment in which such specialised, urgent care can be effectively provided at any time. Based on the experience of the panel, physicians in the ICU see an average of three patients with TMA per year, many of whom are not diagnosed at the time of admission. Although treatment guidelines for aHUS are available for nephrology,^{14,18-20} there is currently no consensus on the diagnosis or treatment of aHUS for ICU specialists. This review aims to summarise available data on the diagnosis and treatment of aHUS in the ICU with the goal of enhancing the understanding of aHUS diagnosis and outcomes in patients managed in the ICU.

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

The need for this manuscript was identified by a multidisciplinary multinational expert panel of 11 members (nine intensive care physicians and two haematologists), who met in September 2015 to define unmet needs and skill priorities for ICU clinicians managing critically ill patients with aHUS and to evaluate existing recommendations outside critical care. A literature search was conducted in the National Library of Medicine database (PubMed; www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/) looking for articles published between January 2009 and March 2016, using the search terms “atypical haemolytic uraemic syndrome” or “atypical hemolytic uremic syndrome” or “diarrhoea negative haemolytic uraemic syndrome” or “diarrhea negative hemolytic uremic syndrome” or “aHUS” or “D-HUS” with search filters of “humans” and “English language”. Additional relevant articles were also included from internet searches using the same search terms. Articles were reviewed manually for relevance by the authors; studies concerning both transplant and native kidney patients with aHUS were permitted in this study, as well as systematic literature reviews and specialist review articles. In total, 539 articles were identified, of which 56 were considered relevant (included diagnosis and/or treatment of adult patients with aHUS).

DIAGNOSIS OF PATIENTS WITH aHUS

Diagnosis of aHUS typically commences with the broad diagnosis of TMA (Figure 2, Table 1) and implicates the involvement of not only the ICU physician but also other specialists, notably haematologists and nephrologists. Clinical suspicion of a TMA is based on clinical findings, including microangiopathic haemolytic anaemia, thrombocytopenia, low haptoglobin, elevated lactate dehydrogenase, elevated reticulocytes, fragmented red cells and schistocytes on peripheral blood smear. Acute kidney injury is common in aHUS, but other organ involvement, including cardiac, gastrointestinal or neurological damage, may be present and can dominate the clinical picture^{1,5,21-24} (Figure 2, Table 1). Once a suspicion of TMA has been established, further investigations, including a full patient medical and family history, are required to exclude other potential causes of TMA, including TTP, shiga-toxin associated HUS (STEC-HUS) or TMA as a transient manifestation of another condition (e.g. malignancy or autoimmune disease) or adverse drug effect, although identification of one of these modulating factors does not preclude development of aHUS in individuals with a genetic predisposition. Additionally, an HIV test and a pregnancy test in women of child-bearing age should be performed to account for these potential triggers.²⁵

Differential diagnosis

Distinguishing aHUS from TTP

ADAMTS13 activity

The most critical and urgent differential diagnosis is to differentiate TTP from aHUS owing to the urgency of specific treatment. Testing for ADAMTS13 (a disintegrin and metalloproteinase with thrombospondin motifs 13) activity is recommended to differentiate between TTP and aHUS,²³ and sampling must take place prior to administration of plasma therapy. ADAMTS13 deficiency is characteristic of TTP, with levels < 10% widely

considered to be diagnostic for the condition.^{12,14,23,26-29} ADAMTS13, also known as vWF cleavage protease, acts by cleavage of vWF into smaller, less thrombotic fragments, thereby reducing platelet aggregation. Conversely, in TTP, reduced activity of ADAMTS13 results in platelet hyperadhesiveness and clumping within the microvasculature.^{23,30}

Somewhat reduced ADAMTS13-activity levels (> 10% of normal) may also occur in aHUS, but such levels are sufficient to exclude TTP. While results from the ADAMTS13 assay are typically available within a few hours when the assay is established in the local laboratory, they may take some days when the sample has to be shipped, meaning that treatment decisions may need to be made prior to receiving the results of the test. If ADAMTS13 tests are not available within a few hours, a diagnostic algorithm developed by Coppo *et al.* – in which TTP is suggested by low platelet count ($< 30 \times 10^9/L$), mildly elevated serum creatinine ($\leq 200 \mu\text{mol/L}$) and detectable antinuclear antibodies – could help form an initial differential diagnosis.³¹ In the interim, until TTP has been excluded, patients should receive plasma exchange.

Organ involvement

The presence of associated organ involvement may be included within the diagnostic workup to provide evidence for differentiation of aHUS from TTP, but it is not conclusive. Renal impairment is the most common complication in aHUS (Figure 3), but renal function may be preserved in up to 20% of cases. Acute kidney injury may be seen in TTP but is typically reversible with therapy.³² The need for renal support, such as haemodialysis, is not a common feature of TTP, but it can be seen in progressive disease with multiorgan involvement.

Neurological signs (e.g. confusion, focal cerebral abnormalities and seizures) and cardiovascular signs (e.g. cardiomyopathy, myocardial infarction, myocarditis and heart failure) occur in 10–48% and 10% of aHUS cases, respectively;⁹ however, these signs tend to

be more frequent in TTP.^{14,33} Tsai³⁴ reported that complications of abnormal vascular permeability (including brain oedema, pleural or pericardial effusions, pulmonary oedema from oliguria or cardiac insufficiency, and ascites) may be used to differentiate TTP from aHUS as they are thought to occur rarely in TTP without comorbidity. aHUS is also occasionally associated with large artery obstruction.³⁵ Arterial hypertension may be present, while pulmonary involvement is frequent in untreated aHUS but rarely associated with other TMAs.²³

Complement protein level testing

Complement factor testing for complement components 3 and 4 (C3 and C4, respectively), complement factor H, complement factor I and antibodies against complement components can detect protein deficiencies due to genetic mutations but cannot differentiate between normal protein and normal levels of functionally ineffective protein.²⁸ C4 levels are usually normal, but C3 levels are low (normal range 88–252 mg/dL in males and 88–206 mg/dL in females³⁶) in up to 40% of patients with aHUS.^{22,37} Many functional complement tests are very sensitive to preanalytical errors. Therefore, complement testing may help to confirm suspected aHUS, but it is not useful as a diagnostic test by itself.

Genetic testing

Genetic abnormalities in the complement system proteins have been documented,³⁸ and assessment of these mutations may be used to confirm a diagnosis. Mutations in complement factor H account for ~25% of aHUS cases, membrane cofactor protein for ~10%, complement factor I for 5–10% and thrombomodulin for up to 5% of cases,³⁹ although no known mutations are identified in 30–50% of patients.^{4,10} Other genetic variants include gain-of-function mutations in the genes coding for complement factor B and C3, and anti-complement factor H antibodies associated with homozygous complement factor H-related

1–3 deletion.^{4,8} The parameters associated with clinical aHUS onset are yet to be wholly elucidated. The current hypothesis is a two-hit model: 1) pre-existing genetic susceptibility factors that are capable of stimulating endothelial cell activation/damage and/or platelet aggregation; and 2) modulating factors, encompassing a variety of conditions that can be infectious, inflammatory or related to pregnancy, drugs or stress and are linked epidemiologically to both TTP and aHUS.²³ Mutations confer a genetic predisposition, so although a positive result is compatible with the diagnosis, a negative result does not necessarily exclude aHUS. Additionally, the results from such tests may take weeks, which is not compatible with the urgent care setting of the ICU, where rapid treatment decisions and administration of urgent therapy are necessities.

Distinguishing aHUS from STEC-HUS and pneumococcal HUS

Culture-based assays (serology or polymerase chain reaction, PCR) for Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* (STEC), using a stool or rectal swab, in patients with diarrhoea can diagnose STEC-HUS and clearly differentiate it from aHUS. Although *E. coli* is not the only source of Shiga toxin, STEC-HUS, previously referred to as typical HUS or diarrhoea-positive HUS, is the most commonly used terminology today and is used here to refer to this subset of HUS. The presence of diarrhoea alone has been used in the past to differentiate between the conditions; however, this cannot be relied upon as up to one-third of aHUS cases also involve diarrhoea, so the presence of Shiga toxin must be analysed in patients with diarrhoea.²³ Pneumococcal HUS is linked to the evidence of invasive pneumococcal infection. Bacterial culture from sterile bodily fluids is required for confirmation of pneumococcal infection and pneumococcal HUS is – in contrast to aHUS and TTP – often associated with a positive Coombs test.²⁵

Further tests to consider in the workup of a patient presenting with TMA

Patients presenting with TMA may require further testing to rule out additional associated conditions. Disseminated intravascular coagulopathy and sepsis may present with TMA features but can be ruled out by measuring coagulation parameters, which are all normal in aHUS and TTP.¹⁴ Pregnancy can result in complications of TMAs; TMA often leads to fetal death and TMA therapy may have an influence on the fetus. Therefore, a pregnancy test should be performed in women of childbearing age.⁴⁰ Viral infections, including HIV, hepatitis B virus, hepatitis C virus, cytomegalovirus and Epstein–Barr virus, can also cause TMA and so must be investigated.^{1,40} Serology tests, such as antinuclear antibodies and anti-DNA-antibodies to neutrophil cytoplasmic antigens, must be considered to rule out systemic diseases,¹ and basal organ testing, including a brain and lung CT scan, troponin levels, blood glucose levels and serum lipase levels, is also recommended.⁴⁰ While a negative direct antiglobulin test (Coombs test) can confirm TMA, a positive result may be indicative of autoimmune haemolytic anaemia, Evans syndrome (when in conjunction with immune-mediated thrombocytopenia) or pneumococcal HUS. A full medical history should be acquired to determine underlying conditions, such as malignancies, and drug- or medication-associated TMAs,^{1,40} for example heparin-induced thrombocytopenia (HIT).⁴¹ Family history of TMA or renal injury should also be evaluated considering the important genetic component of aHUS.

Diagnosing aHUS in the ICU setting

Data on the clinical presentation and diagnosis of aHUS, particularly in the ICU setting, are limited by the small number of patients with this condition reported in ICU literature²⁸. Furthermore, findings relating to aHUS are mostly published in nephrology and haematology journals, with limited reach to the ICU specialist. An industry-supported global aHUS registry was initiated in 2012, and data on the baseline demographics and clinical characteristics of 516 patients with aHUS were recently published.⁴²

A review of the available case studies relevant to the ICU setting revealed that the initial diagnostic workup was similar for all patients, regardless of the presenting symptoms. It is notable that a variety of approaches were taken for progression beyond the TMA diagnosis, with most patients receiving initial plasma exchange while undergoing further investigations, including ADAMTS13 activity, Shiga toxin testing, kidney biopsy if feasible in critically ill patients and genetic screening. Together, information from these case studies can inform an appropriate workup relevant to patients presenting with aHUS symptoms within the ICU. A summary of the key considerations for the differential diagnosis of aHUS in the ICU setting is presented in Table 1.

TREATMENT OF PATIENTS WITH aHUS IN THE ICU

Knowing the standard of care for patients with aHUS, based on available guidelines and expert suggestions on best practice in the treatment of critically ill patients with aHUS, is a skill we consider necessary within the ICU. No published guidelines or recommendations focus on the management of patients in the ICU; however, there are no differences in treatment requirements between settings, and published treatment guidelines from other clinical settings apply.

Immediate ICU management

The critical nature of acute TMA means that a high proportion of patients may be admitted to the ICU at presentation. Owing to the severity of the progression of aHUS and other TMAs, a suspected diagnosis should be treated as a medical emergency, and initial supportive measures should be introduced with urgency. The British Committee for Standards in Haematology guidelines suggest that appropriate treatment should be initiated within 4–8 h from diagnosis, as delays are associated with increased morbidity and mortality.¹⁴

While plasma exchange has greatly improved the survival of patients with TTP,¹² it is not considered the most effective therapy for aHUS as the majority of patients will die or require long-term renal replacement therapy despite this treatment.^{4,12,37} However, owing to the difficulty in differentiating between aHUS and TTP, initiation of plasma exchange is often necessary while laboratory results are being determined.⁴³ Exceptions include patients with metastatic cancer with bone marrow involvement for which plasma exchange would not improve the situation. Plasma exchange requires careful monitoring of organ function, platelet counts and the presence of infections, which can arise from central venous lines and

other sources related to medical interventions. Platelet concentrates should be avoided during initial therapy as they may aggravate platelet aggregation.⁴⁰

Specific management of aHUS

Once ADAMTS13 is proven detectable (> 10% activity) the probability of a diagnosis of aHUS is high, and more specific therapy can be applied. This can be confirmed with a negative test for STEC, once laboratory results have been received. Treatment options for aHUS were limited to plasma exchange, dialysis for renal failure and kidney transplantation until 2011, when eculizumab, a recombinant, humanised, monoclonal antibody was approved for use in patients with aHUS.^{12,43} Eculizumab selectively targets and inhibits the terminal complement protein C5, thereby inhibiting the terminal complement activation.⁴⁴

Eculizumab has been demonstrated to be effective and well tolerated in four prospective phase II trials in patients with aHUS.⁴⁴⁻⁴⁷ These trials were however not carried out in the critical care setting. In these trials, terminal complement inhibition with eculizumab was associated with inhibition of further TMA progression, increased platelet count and significant improvement in renal function, including discontinuation of dialysis in 80% of patients on dialysis at initiation of treatment and prevention of recurrence after transplantation.⁶ Based on these results, eculizumab was included in a 2015 update to the clinical guidelines¹ and in an international consensus for the treatment of aHUS in children in 2016.¹⁹ In addition, a number of reviews on the management of patients with aHUS recommend the use of eculizumab.^{14,20,25,28,43,48,49} However, eculizumab is contraindicated in patients with unresolved Neisserial infection, e.g. *Neisseria meningitidis*, and in unvaccinated individuals owing to the role of terminal complement in the prevention of Neisserial infection, unless the benefits of treatment outweigh the risks of contracting the infection.⁵⁰ Vaccination against *Neisseria meningitidis* serotypes A, C, Y and W135 and meningococcus

Type B should be administered at least 2 weeks prior to initiation of eculizumab. If eculizumab treatment needs to be initiated immediately in a critically ill patient, prophylactic antibiotics should be given at the start of therapy and maintained for a minimum of 2 weeks⁵¹ or as specified in individual country guidelines.

Management should also include supportive measures aimed at managing the risks and consequences of aHUS, such as hypertension, anaemia, thrombocytopenia, acute renal failure and infections, particularly in patients not receiving specific targeted treatment, e.g. eculizumab. Hypertension is common in patients presenting with aHUS and should be managed with appropriate medications (angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitors or angiotensin receptor blockers), while red blood cell transfusion may be considered for patients with anaemia, noting that platelet infusions are contraindicated unless the patient is bleeding or at high risk of haemorrhage (i.e. at-risk surgical procedure) or severely thrombocytopenic (platelet count $<30,000/\text{mm}^3$). Due to the risk of relapse triggered by infections, physicians should be vigilant for signs of infection, initiating appropriate treatment where necessary.^{1,3}

Recommendations for standard of care for patients with aHUS in the ICU

Using published recommendations¹ and expert opinions of the panel, recommendations for the standard of care for adult patients with aHUS in the ICU are outlined in Table 3.

OUTCOMES OF CRITICALLY ILL PATIENTS WITH aHUS

Data regarding the outcomes of adult patients with aHUS are sparse owing to the rarity of the disorder, and data relating to the treatment of such patients in the ICU are rarer still. However, existing studies agree that the prognosis of patients with aHUS is poor, with around 50% of patients requiring dialysis, suffering permanent kidney damage or dying within 1 year of first occurrence despite plasma therapy.^{4,10,52} In an Italian cohort, mortality after the first episode was 2% in adults; this was markedly lower than the 12% mortality rate reported in children in the same study. Furthermore, 32% of survivors never recovered renal function.¹⁰ Despite plasma therapy, at 3–5 years after onset, 67% of adults with aHUS had either died or reached end-stage renal failure.¹⁰

Kidney transplantation, while cited as a treatment option for aHUS, was, in fact, rarely considered because of an overall risk of recurrence after transplantation of 50%, with a high risk of graft rejection (up to 100%) in those with recurrence.³ The risk of post-transplant recurrence varies according to the genetic mutation present and ranges from 0 to 30% in patients with membrane cofactor protein mutation, 40 to 70% with C3 mutation, 45 to 80% with complement factor I mutation, 75 to 90% with complement factor H mutation and up to 100% with complement factor B mutation.^{3,10,17,53} Owing to the high risk of graft rejection, living-donor transplantation is not recommended, particularly from living relations owing to the increased risk of the donor subsequently developing aHUS.³

Since the approval of eculizumab, outcomes of patients with aHUS have improved significantly, causing a paradigm shift in the management of these patients.^{19,47} Notably, 80% of patients on dialysis at baseline could discontinue dialysis with eculizumab.^{25,45} A 2-year extension of a phase II study with eculizumab found that haematological normalisation was achieved by 13 of 17 patients after 26 weeks and by 15 patients at both years 1 and 2. In a

retrospective study of 19 cases of aHUS in adults, all with acute kidney injury, nine had normal kidney function after 3 months' treatment with eculizumab.⁵⁴

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Conclusion

This review is the first of its kind to outline the standard of care in critically ill adult patients with aHUS in the ICU. aHUS is defined by thrombocytopenia, non-immune haemolytic anaemia and acute kidney injury, and often presents with associated organ dysfunction. Although TTP is fairly well recognised by critical care specialists, aHUS remains a diagnostic challenge owing to the rarity of the disease. As there are no specific tests and aHUS is diagnosed by exclusion, diagnosis should be oriented towards aHUS if disseminated intravascular coagulation is ruled out, STEC test is negative and plasma activity of ADAMTS13 is $> 10\%$. For optimal patient outcomes, early recognition and appropriate treatment are critical to reduce the risk of irreversible organ damage or death. This review suggests initiating plasma therapy within 4–8 h of TMA diagnosis and switching to eculizumab treatment as early as possible after a confirmed aHUS diagnosis (ADAMTS13 $> 10\%$ and a negative STEC test).

Figure legends

Fig. 1. Pathophysiology of TMAs.¹

ADAMTS13, a disintegrin and metalloproteinase with thrombospondin motifs 13; aHUS, atypical haemolytic uraemic syndrome; C3, complement component 3; CMV, cytomegalovirus; EBV, Epstein–Barr virus; FB, complement factor B; FH, complement factor H; FI, complement factor I; HELLP, Haemolysis, Elevated Liver enzymes, Low Platelet count; MCP, membrane cofactor protein; THBD, thrombomodulin; TMA, thrombotic microangiopathy; TTP, thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura.

Fig. 2. Algorithm for the differential diagnosis of aHUS in the ICU.^{1,12,14,25,40,55,56}

*If two categories of clinical findings are present (organ damage and/or thrombocytopenia and/or microangiopathic haemolysis), repeat tests after 24 hours. If three categories of clinical findings are present, move to TMA diagnosis confirmation.

**Others include acute viraemia (CMV, HIV, EBV), pregnancy-associated complications (HELLP, pre-eclampsia), malignant hypertension, catastrophic antiphospholipid antibody syndrome and severe, systemic autoimmune diseases. This list is not exhaustive. ADAMTS13, a disintegrin and metalloproteinase with thrombospondin motifs 13; ADP, adenosine diphosphate; aHUS, atypical haemolytic uraemic syndrome; aPTT, activated partial thromboplastin time; CMV, cytomegalovirus; CNS, central nervous system; DIC, disseminated intravascular coagulation; EBV, Epstein–Barr virus; EHEC, enterohaemorrhagic *Escherichia coli*; GI, gastrointestinal; GP, glycoprotein; Hb, haemoglobin; HELLP, Haemolysis, Elevated Liver enzymes, Low Platelet count; LDH, lactate dehydrogenase; N.V. normal value; PLT, platelet; sCr, serum creatinine; STEC, Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli*; TMA, thrombotic microangiopathy; TTP, thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura.

Fig. 3. Frequency of organ involvement in atypical haemolytic uraemic syndrome.⁹

CNS, central nervous system; GI, gastrointestinal.

Table 1. Recommended tests for the differential diagnosis of aHUS. ^{1,12,14,25,40,55,56}

Identify TMA		
Test	Outcome in aHUS	In alternative diagnosis
Reticulocyte counts	Increased	
Free serum haemoglobin	Increased	
LDH	Increased	
Haptoglobin	Decreased	Often decreased in TMAs, normal in DIC and sepsis
Schistocytes	Present	Can be present in all TMAs
Platelet count	Decreased (most of the time)	Can be reduced in all TMAs
Haemoglobin	Decreased	Can be decreased in all TMAs
Serum creatinine	Increased (most of the time)	Can be increased in all TMAs
Haematuria and proteinuria	Present (most of the time)	Can be present in all TMAs
Kidney biopsy ^a	Often arteriolar and/or glomerular intracapillary thrombosis if kidney affected	
Additional tests to perform to advise on other possible causes of TMA		
Direct antiglobulin test (Coombs test)	Negative	Positive in autoimmune haemolytic anaemias, Evans syndrome and pneumococcal HUS
Fibrinogen	Normal	Reduced fibrinogen and elevated fibrinogen degradation products in DIC
aPTT, PT	Normal	Prolonged in DIC
Plasma coagulation tests	Normal	Reduced in DIC
D-dimer	Normal (can be elevated)	Elevated D-dimer in DIC or TMA
Liver enzyme levels	Normal (can be elevated if liver is involved)	Elevated in HELLP syndrome
Viral infections, including HIV, HBV, HCV, and H1N1	Can be a precipitant of aHUS	Known external precipitant of TMA
Pregnancy test (where appropriate)	Pregnancy-triggered TMA caused by aHUS usually presents in late pregnancy or post partum	Pregnancy-triggered TMA caused by TTP usually presents during pregnancy
Antibody testing, including antinuclear antibody, lupus anticoagulant, antiphospholipid antibodies	Negative	Positive in systemic diseases like SLE, CAPS; 30% of TTP have positive ANA
Rule out TTP and STEC-HUS		
STEC infection: faecal sample or rectal swab test for <i>E. coli</i> and/or PCR for Shiga toxin, and serology of LPS of common Shiga toxin-producing strains	Negative	Positive in STEC-HUS
ADAMTS13	> 10% activity	< 10% activity in TTP

^aKidney biopsies are rarely performed as little information can be obtained above that from laboratory results; kidney biopsy in critically ill patients with low platelet counts should not be performed owing to bleeding risk.

This is not an exhaustive list, but a suggestion. Further tests for conditions that can mimic TMA, such as malaria, babesiosis and vitamin deficiency, may be warranted.

ADAMTS13, a disintegrin and metalloproteinase with thrombospondin motifs 13; aHUS, atypical haemolytic uraemic syndrome; aPTT, activated partial thromboplastin time; CAPS, cryopyrin-associated autoinflammatory syndrome; DIC, disseminated intravascular coagulation; HBV, hepatitis B virus;

HCV, hepatitis C virus; HELLP, Haemolysis, Elevated Liver enzymes, Low Platelet count; LDH, lactate dehydrogenase; LPS, lipopolysaccharide; MAHA, microangiopathic haemolytic anaemia; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; PT, prothrombin time; SLE, systemic lupus erythematosus; STEC, Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli*; TMA, thrombotic microangiopathy; TTP, thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura.

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Table 2. Key considerations for differential diagnosis of aHUS in the ICU.

1. Microangiopathic haemolytic anaemia, thrombocytopenia and organ impairment should be recognised as being suggestive of TMA
2. A full medical history should be taken to exclude or identify other causes, e.g. previous TMA episodes, pregnancy, prior malignancies, drug use, etc.
3. Disseminated intravascular coagulation and sepsis should be ruled out by clinical picture, microbiological testing and assessment of coagulation screen
4. TTP and STEC-HUS should be ruled out with ADAMTS13 activity (before initiation of plasma therapy) and Shiga tests; if ADAMTS13-activity test is not available, the Coppo algorithm³¹ to assess serum creatinine and platelet count may be considered
5. If TMA persists upon specific treatment of associated condition (Fig 1), differential diagnosis for aHUS should be considered

ADAMTS13, a disintegrin and metalloproteinase with thrombospondin motifs 13; aHUS, atypical haemolytic uraemic syndrome; ICU, intensive care unit; STEC, Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli*; TMA, thrombotic microangiopathy; TTP, thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura.

Table 3. Recommendations for management of adult patients with suspected aHUS in the ICU.

1. Obtain adequate diagnostic samples before plasma therapy
2. Make use of multidisciplinary care, including nephrologists and haematologists
3. Initiate plasma therapy within 4–8 h of admission or diagnosis of TMA. For patients with an initial presentation of TMA, switch to eculizumab as soon as a diagnosis of aHUS is confirmed (ADAMTS13 > 10% and STEC negative); for patients with a history of previous aHUS, initiate eculizumab immediately upon admission to the ICU
4. Careful ICU monitoring should be offered as organ dysfunction may appear or worsen until remission
5. Owing to the increased risk of *Neisseria meningitidis* infection with eculizumab treatment, patients should be vaccinated against serotypes A, C, Y and W135 and subtype B 2 weeks before eculizumab is initiated; unvaccinated individuals should receive prophylactic antibiotics upon eculizumab initiation until at least 2 weeks after *Neisseria meningitidis* vaccination (please refer to country-specific guidelines).

ADAMTS13, a disintegrin and metalloproteinase with thrombospondin motifs 13; aHUS, atypical haemolytic uraemic syndrome; ICU, intensive care unit; STEC, Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli*; TMA, thrombotic microangiopathy.

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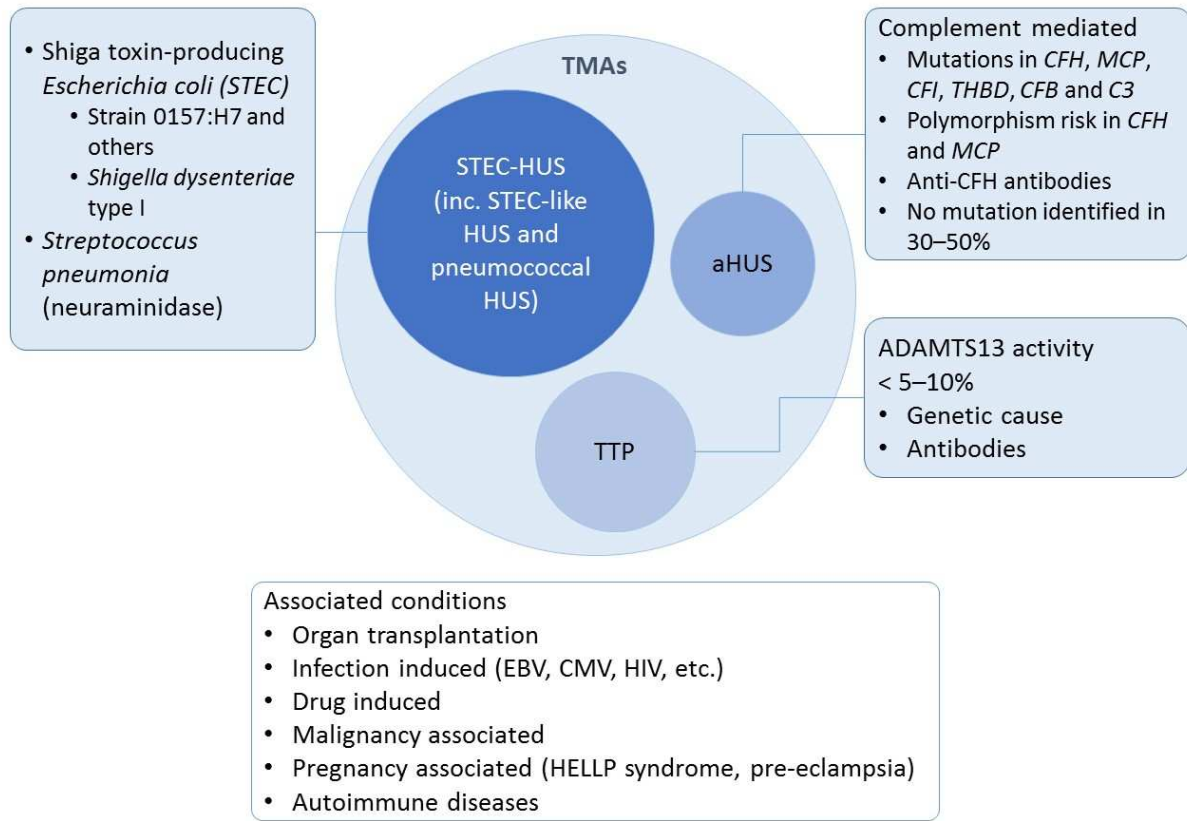
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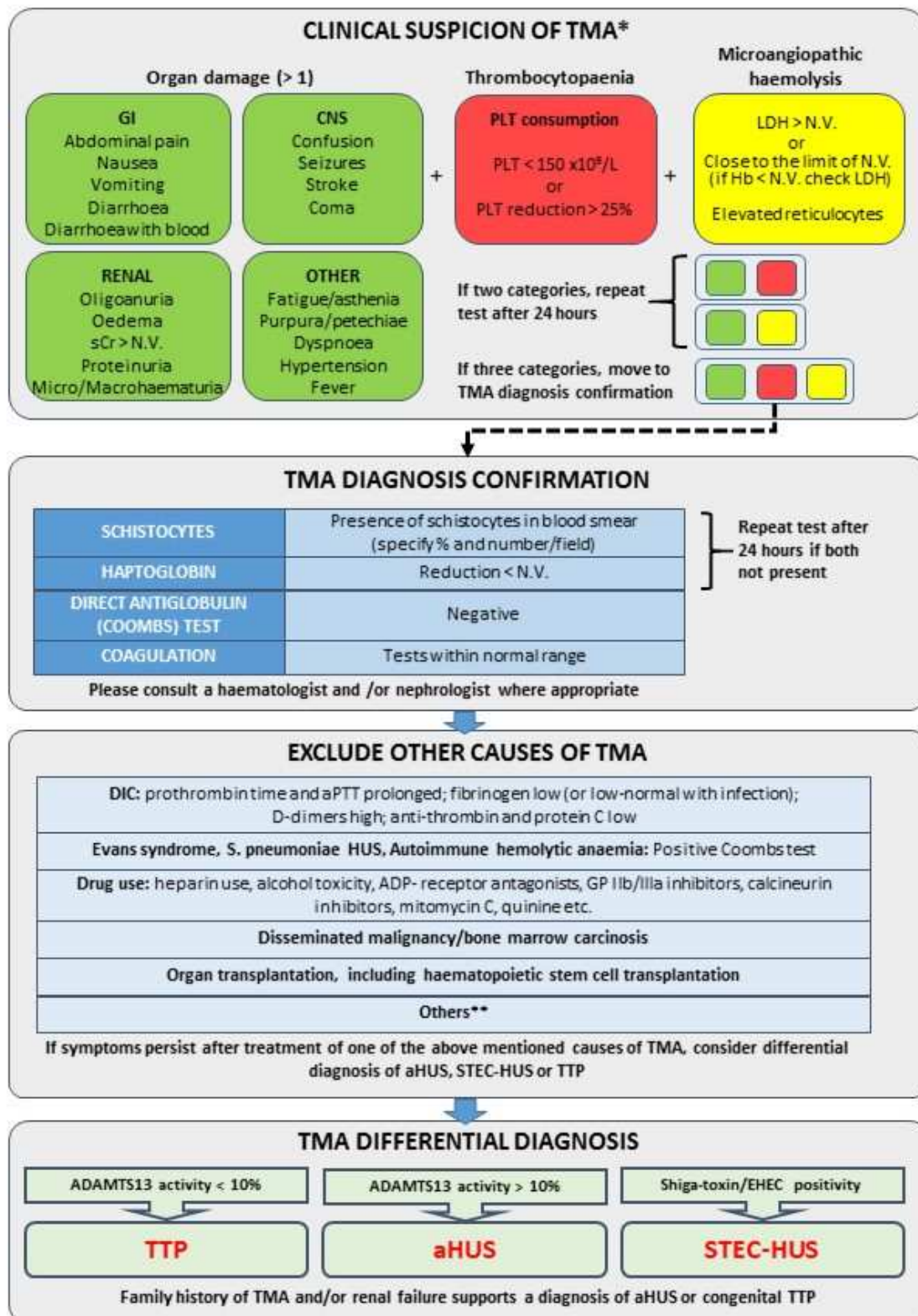
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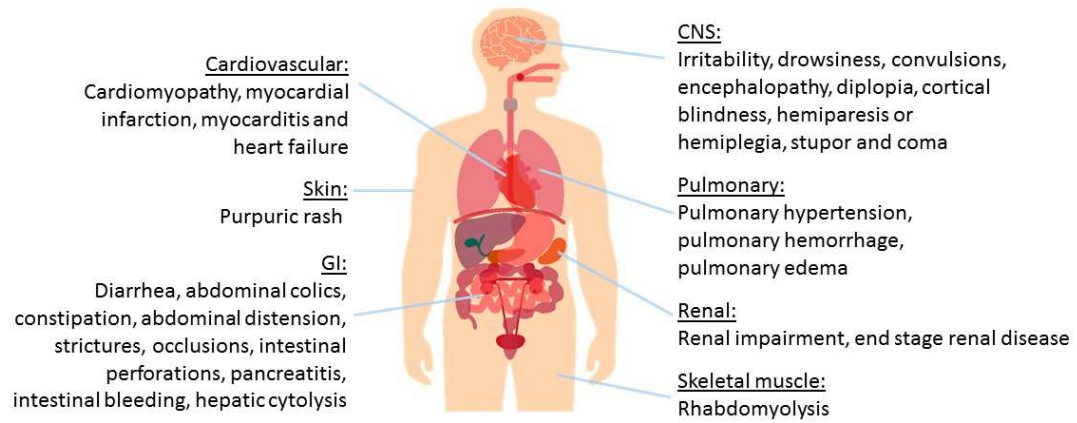
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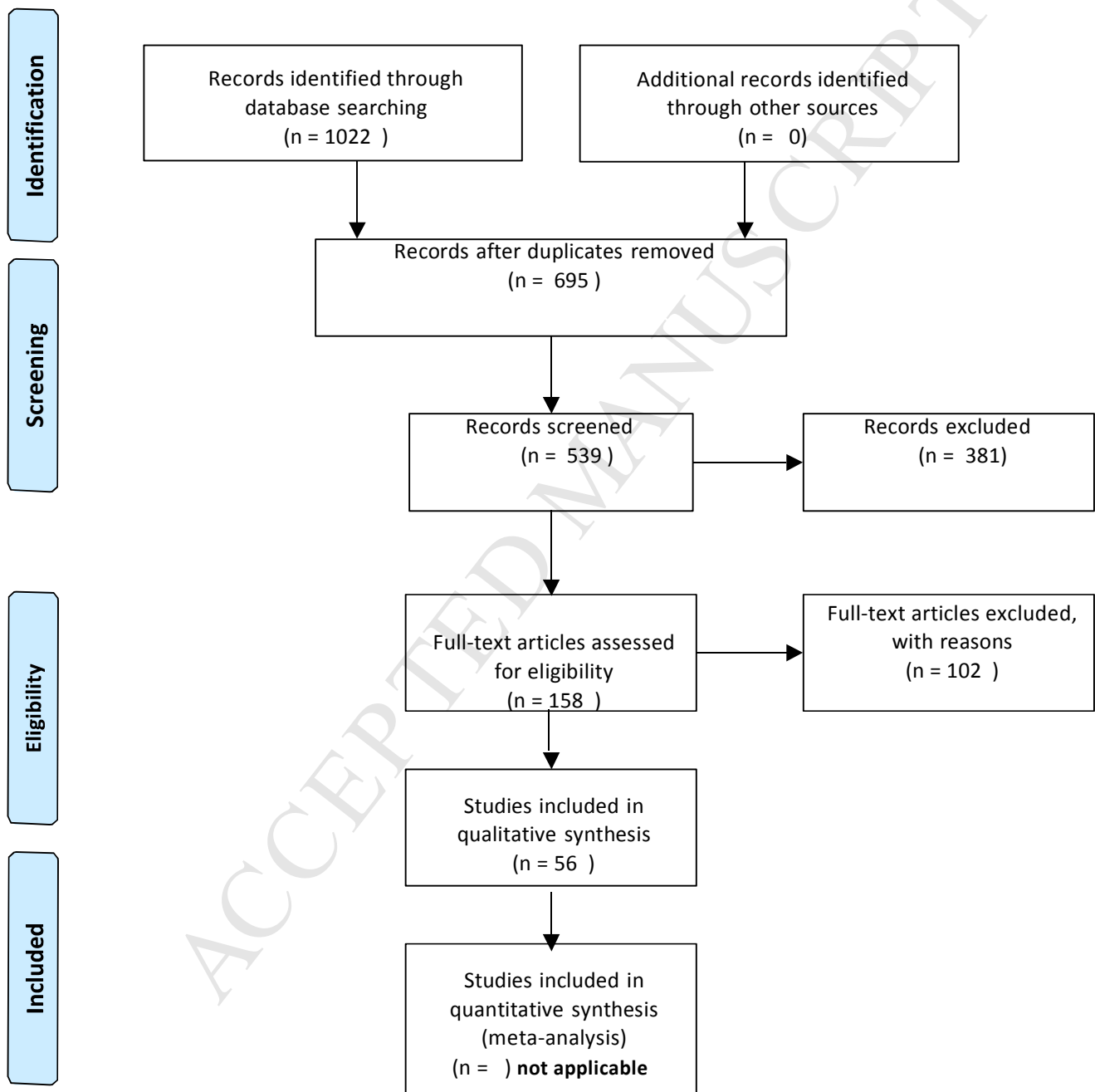




Appendice 1



PRISMA 2009 Flow Diagram



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